



# Oxygen vacancies-rich $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ cones loaded low content Pd for efficient and fast electrocatalytic hydrodechlorination

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## ABSTRACT

Pd-based materials have been considered to be the preferred electrocatalysts for electrocatalytic hydrodechlorination (EHDC) due to their excellent  $\text{H}^*$  production capacity. However, the scarcity and high price of Pd restrict its use, thus, an efficient Pd-based EHDC electrocatalyst with low Pd content should be developed. In this work, oxygen vacancies-rich  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  ( $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_{4-\text{OV}}$ ) cone-like architecture growth in situ on Ni foam was used as an intermediate layer to synthesize  $\text{Pd@Co}_3\text{O}_{4-\text{OV}}/\text{NF}$  EHDC electrocatalyst with low Pd loading ( $0.0254 \text{ mg cm}^{-2}$ ).  $\text{Pd@Co}_3\text{O}_{4-\text{OV}}/\text{NF}$  electrocatalyst can obviously promote the  $\text{H}^*$  production and shows high EHDC activity with a dechlorination activity (DA) of  $2.07 \text{ mmol}_{2,4\text{-DCP}} \text{ g}_{\text{Pd}}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$  for EHDC of 2,4-dichlorophenol, which is higher than most reported Pd-modified electrodes. The  $\text{Pd@Co}_3\text{O}_{4-\text{OV}}/\text{NF}$  exhibited excellent anti-background interference ability (different initial pH and anions in aqueous solution) and good cycle stability (5 consecutive EHDC cycles), which could effectively improve aquatic biosafety.

## 1. Introduction

Chlorinated organic compounds (COCs) have found extensive use in various fields such as insecticides, electronics, chemical manufacturing, petroleum refining, and medicines [1,2]. However, the majority of COCs are extremely toxic, bioaccumulative, and resistant to degradation, which might cause substantial environmental issues as well as damage to human health [3,4]. Different methods have been exploited for the or removal of COCs, including biodegradation [5,6], physical treatment [7, 8], photocatalysis [9,10], and electrocatalytic hydrodechlorination (EHDC) [11–13]. Among them, EHDC treatment has been proposed as one of the most promising methods with the features of high efficiency, gentle reaction conditions, and low apparatus cost [14,15].

EHDC is an indirect reduction reaction pathway launched by the active atomic hydrogen ( $\text{H}^*$ ), which is created in situ on the surface of specific cathode materials via  $\text{H}^+$  reduction [16].  $\text{H}^*$  acts as potent reducing species for the breakage of carbon-chlorine (C-Cl) bonds of COCs to reduce toxicity by hydrodechlorination [17]. So far, Pd-based materials have excellent  $\text{H}^*$  production capacity, which are considered to be preferred electrocatalysts for EHDC [18]. Nevertheless, significant expenses and limited deposits of Pd pose constraints on its large-scale

practical application in water treatment. Therefore, it is necessary to design a reasonable Pd structure to obtain excellent electrochemical performance while reducing the amount of Pd.

A reduction in the loading of Pd on the catalyst often results in a drop in hydrodechlorination activity, particularly in terms of reaction rate. Seeking a suitable intermediate layer as the support of Pd can effectively reduce the Pd loading and keep high EHDC activity. Transition metal oxides (TMOs) have garnered significant attention as potential candidates for electrocatalysis owing to their advantageous attributes such as cost effectiveness, abundant reserves, and exceptional electrochemical stability [19]. Thus, it is reasonable to design TMOs-based Pd electrocatalyst because the water dissociation (Volmer step,  $\text{H}_2\text{O} + * + \text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{H}^* + \text{OH}^-$ ) property of TMOs is beneficial to generate  $\text{H}^*$  for EHDC reaction. However, TMOs suffer from inefficient water splitting kinetics due to low conductivity and low exposed active site [20]. According to previous researches, introducing oxygen vacancies to TMOs has been found to remarkably boost electrical conductivity and reactivity of active sites, thus enhancing water splitting activity [21,22]. The promoted  $\text{H}^*$  production capacity is effective for tuning the reaction kinetics and speeding up the reaction rate. Meanwhile, oxygen vacancies on TMOs-support can serve as the anchoring points to catch and load Pd by

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strong metal–support interactions (SMSI), which is advantageous to reduce Pd loading and improve atomic utilization [23]. Furthermore, the SMSI effect can regulate the electronic environment of loaded Pd atoms by redistributing the charge between the TMOs-support and the Pd, leading to enhancement of adsorption and activation of substrate molecules, which is conducive to efficient and fast EHDC reaction [24].

In this work, oxygen vacancies-rich  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  ( $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_{4-\text{OV}}$ ) cone-like architecture growth in situ on Ni foam (NF) was used as an intermediate layer to synthesize  $\text{Pd}@\text{Co}_3\text{O}_{4-\text{OV}}/\text{NF}$  EHDC electrode with low Pd loading ( $0.0254 \text{ mg cm}^{-2}$ ). SMSI effect between  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_{4-\text{OV}}/\text{NF}$  support and Pd can induce electrons to transfer from the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_{4-\text{OV}}/\text{NF}$  support to the Pd active sites, which promotes water splitting and EHDC reaction. The prepared  $\text{Pd}@\text{Co}_3\text{O}_{4-\text{OV}}/\text{NF}$  can obviously promote the  $\text{H}^*$  production and shows high EHDC activity with a dechlorination activity (DA) of  $2.07 \text{ mmol}_{2,4\text{-DCP}} \text{ g}_{\text{Pd}}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$  for EHDC of 2,4-dichlorophenol (2,4-DCP), which is higher than most reported Pd modified electrodes. Meanwhile, the material has good adaptability in the water environment of different initial pH (3–11) solutions and different anions ( $4 \text{ mM NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{NO}_2^-$ ,  $\text{Cl}^-$ ,  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$ ) and has good cycle stability by repeating the EHDC reaction for five consecutive cycles. Finally, by testing the activity of *Chlorella* cells in different predetermined solutions, the improvement of biosafety in water after EHDC treatment is proved.

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Chemicals and materials

Cobalt nitrate ( $\text{Co}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6 \text{ H}_2\text{O}$ , AR), urea ( $\text{CO}(\text{NH}_2)_2$ , AR), ammonium fluoride ( $\text{NH}_4\text{F}$ , GR), tert-butanol (t-BuOH, AR), acetone (AR), hydrochloric acid (HCl, AR), Sodium borohydride ( $\text{NaBH}_4$ , AR), 5,5-dimethyl-1-pyrroline N-oxide ( $\text{C}_6\text{H}_{11}\text{NO}$ , DMPO, 97%), and ethanol absolute (AR) were supplied by Chemical reagents of Sinopharm Group. 2,4-Dichlorophenol (2,4-DCP, >98.0%), phenol (P, AR), o-Chlorophenol (o-CP, 99.0%), 4-Chlorophenol (p-CP, 98.0%), 2-Fluorophenol ( $\geq 98.0\%$ ), 2-Bromophenol (98.0%), 2,4-Dichlorobenzoic acid (2,4-DCBA, 98.0%), 2,4-Dichlorophenoxyacetic acid (2,4-D, 97.0%), Chloramphenicol (CAP, 98.0%), sodium sulfate anhydrous ( $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4$ , AR), and palladium (II) chloride ( $\text{PdCl}_2$ ,  $\geq 99.0\%$ ) were purchased from Aladdin Reagent Co., Ltd., China. All solutions were made with ultrapure water (specific conductivity  $\geq 18.2 \text{ m}\Omega \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ). Suzhou Siner Technology Co., Ltd supplied the Ni foam (pore density=110ppi) used in this work. DuPont provided the cation exchange membrane (Nafion-117) used in this study.

### 2.2. Synthesis of $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_{4-\text{OV}}/\text{NF}$

Before fabrication, the Ni foam ( $1.5 \times 1.5 \text{ cm}^2$ ) was successively cleaned in acetone, HCl solution (3 M), ethanol absolute and ultrapure water with ultrasonication for 10 min respectively and then dried in a vacuum oven for 6 hours at  $60^\circ\text{C}$ . The interference factors, such as oxide layer and organic carbon on the surface can be removed by pretreatment.

The components of the supported solution of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  were  $\text{NH}_4\text{F}$  (3 mmol), urea (7 mmol),  $\text{Co}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6 \text{ H}_2\text{O}$  (2 mmol), and ultrapure water (30 mL), which were mixed evenly at room temperature. The clean Ni foam and mixed solution were added to a 50 mL polytetrafluoroethylene autoclave and then heated at  $130^\circ\text{C}$  for 4 hours. The obtained samples were dried in a vacuum oven at  $60^\circ\text{C}$  for 6 hours. Subsequently, the samples were then put in a tube furnace and heated to  $350^\circ\text{C}$  for 2 hours at a ramping rate of  $2^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$  in the air atmosphere to obtain  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4/\text{NF}$ . The  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4/\text{NF}$  was soaked in 0.75 M  $\text{NaBH}_4$  solution for 2 hours to get  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_{4-\text{OV}}/\text{NF}$ .

### 2.3. Synthesis of $\text{Pd}@\text{Co}_3\text{O}_{4-\text{OV}}/\text{NF}$

The  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_{4-\text{OV}}/\text{NF}$  was put into the precursor solution of ultrapure

water (24 mL) and 1 mL  $\text{PdCl}_2$  aqueous solution (10 mM;  $\text{PdCl}_2$  dissolved in HCl solution to form  $\text{PdCl}_4^{2-}$ ,  $n(\text{PdCl}_2):n(\text{HCl})=1:2$ ), and then irradiated by the ultraviolet light (UV, 365 nm,  $15 \text{ W} \cdot 4$ ) for 60 min to load Pd.

For comparison,  $\text{Pd}@\text{NF}$ ,  $\text{Pd}@\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4/\text{NF}$  were prepared by the same method.

### 2.4. Electrochemical test measurements

Reductive EHDC experiments of 2,4-DCP were carried out in a traditional H-type two-chamber cell. The anode and cathode chamber cells were separated by a Nafion-117 membrane. The cathode chamber comprised 40 mL aqueous solution containing  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4$  (50 mM) and 2,4-DCP ( $80 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ), while the anode chamber comprised 40 mL  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4$  (50 mM) solution. The prepared electrodes mentioned were used as the cathode electrode, and a platinum sheet ( $1.5 \times 1.5 \text{ cm}^2$ ) and an Ag/AgCl electrode were used as the anode electrode and reference electrode, respectively. The solution in cathode chamber and anode chamber was saturated with  $\text{N}_2$  before testing. The electrolyte of cathode chamber was magnetically stirred during electrolysis. The constant current was  $10 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ , and the working time was 2 hours at room temperature. 0.5 mL of sample was taken from the cathode chamber at certain intervals and filtered by a  $0.45 \mu\text{m}$  filter for high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) analysis, the mobile phase contained 70% methanol and 30% water and the flow rate was  $1.0 \text{ mL min}^{-1}$ . The dechlorination efficiency of 2,4-DCP was calculated as:  $\text{CE}(\%) = (1 - C_t/C_0) \times 100\%$ , where  $C_t$  is the concentration of 2,4-DCP at time  $t$ ,  $C_0$  is the initial 2,4-DCP concentration. A pseudo-first-order kinetics model was used to describe the reaction and expressed as:  $\ln(C_t/C_0) = -K \times t$ , where  $K$  is the apparent rate constant ( $\text{min}^{-1}$ ) obtained from a linear regression of  $\ln(C_t/C_0)$  versus  $t$ . The dechlorination activity (DA) of Pd was calculated under optimal conditions based on the quantity of reactants converted:  $\text{DA} = N_0 \times \alpha / (M_{\text{Pd}} \times t)$ , where  $N_0$  represents the moles of initial 2,4-DCP (mmol),  $M_{\text{Pd}}$  is the total Pd loading (g),  $\alpha$  represents the conversion of 2,4-DCP ( $\alpha = 50\%$ ), and  $t$  is the electrolysis time (min).

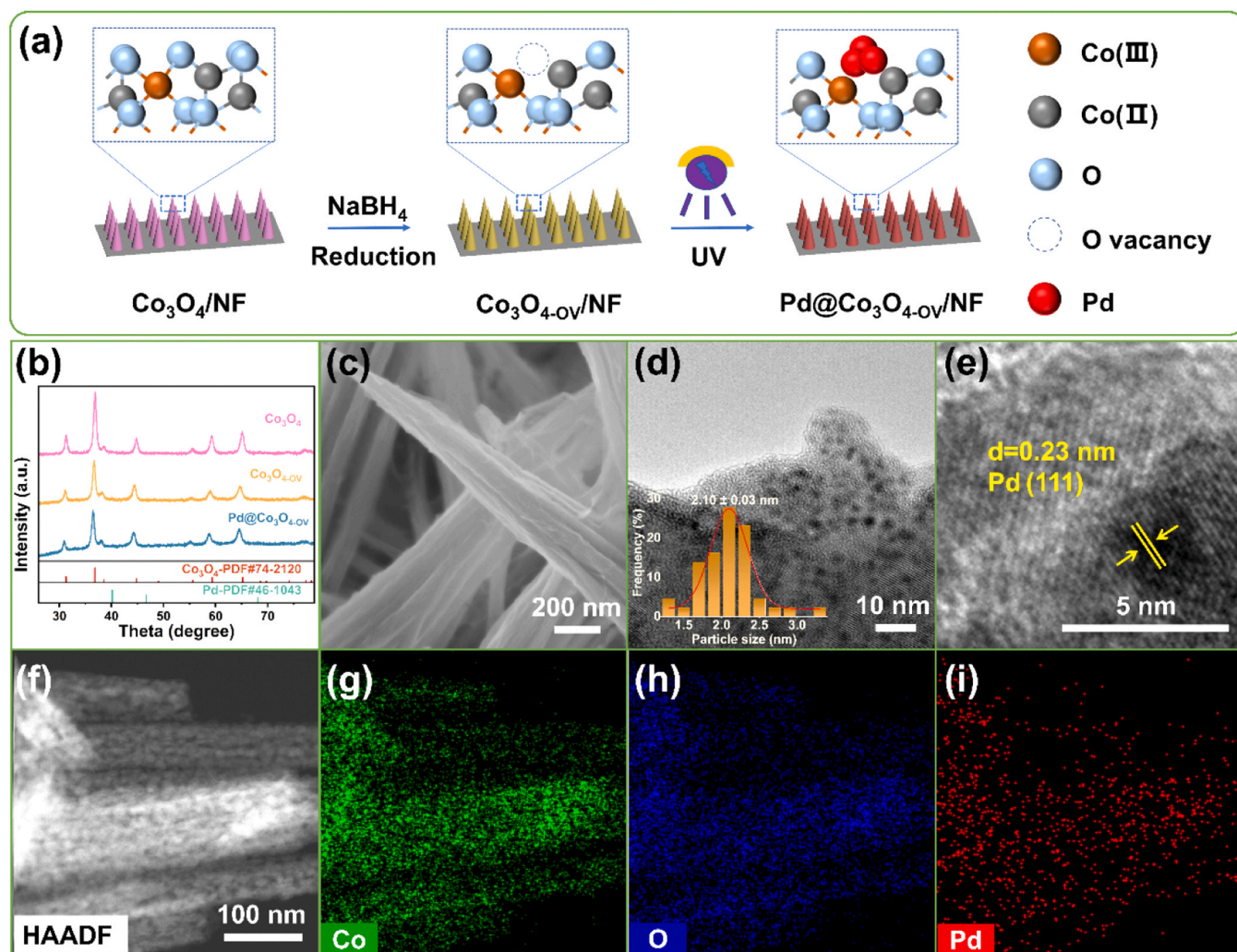
### 2.5. Material characterization

The crystal structure of samples was analysed by DX2700 X-ray diffraction (XRD, Dandong, China) with a Cu K $\alpha$  radiation ( $\lambda=1.5418 \text{ \AA}$ ), operating at 40 kV voltage and 30 mA current. The morphology and structure of the samples were investigated by an FEI Magellan 400 field emission scanning electron microscope (FESEM) and a JEOL JEM-2100 F scanning transmission electron microscope (STEM) equipped with Cs probe corrector at 200 kV. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was measured by Thermo Scientific K-Alpha XPS with Al K $\alpha$  radiation ( $h\nu=1486.6 \text{ eV}$ ). Inductively coupled plasma (ICP) was performed using Agilent 7800 to determine the loading of Pd on  $\text{Pd}@\text{Co}_3\text{O}_{4-\text{OV}}/\text{NF}$ . Electron spin resonance spectroscopy (ESR) was performed to determine the main active species ( $\text{H}^*$ ) in EHDC by Bruker EMXnano. Linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) was carried out on CHI760e electrochemical workstation. EHDC experiments were conducted on multi-channel electrochemical analyser (IviuMn stat, Netherlands). The concentrations of the different pollutants were monitored by HPLC (Dalian ELITE, China), utilizing a UV–VIS detector at 275 nm with a C18 column ( $4.6 \times 150 \text{ mm}$ ,  $5 \mu\text{m}$ ). The optical density (OD) of the healthy *Chlorella* cells was measured by using a UV–vis spectrophotometer (Persee T9s) at 680 nm.

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. Synthesis and characterization

Fig. 1a illustrates the synthesis procedure of the  $\text{Pd}@\text{Co}_3\text{O}_{4-\text{OV}}/\text{NF}$ . Firstly, the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4/\text{NF}$  was synthesized by hydrothermal method at  $130^\circ\text{C}$



**Fig. 1.** (a) Synthesis diagram of Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF electrocatalyst; (b) XRD patterns of Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV and Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV powders; (c) SEM image of Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF electrocatalyst; (d) TEM image of Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF electrocatalyst (inset: the corresponding Pd size distribution); (e) HRTEM image of Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF electrocatalyst; (f-i) EDS mapping images of the Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF.

°C for 4 hours and then calcined in air at 350 °C for 2 hours. The Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF material, which has a high concentration of oxygen vacancies, was synthesized by immersing Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/NF in a 0.75 M NaBH<sub>4</sub> solution for a duration of 2 hours [25]. An ultraviolet reduction method was used to load Pd on the Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF [26,27]. The Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF was fully soaked in Pd<sup>2+</sup> precursor solution to allow the Pd<sup>2+</sup> to be adsorbed in its oxygen vacancies and then irradiated by UV (ultraviolet light) to obtain Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF.

The X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> exhibit distinct peaks at certain angles, namely 31.3°, 36.9°, 38.6°, 44.8°, 55.6°, 59.3°, and 65.2°. These peaks may be attributed to the crystallographic planes (220), (311), (222), (400), (422), (511), and (440) of Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, as shown by the JCPDS#74-2120 (Fig. 1b). Particularly, the XRD pattern of Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV is similar to Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, indicating that the crystalline phase of Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> remains unchanged after NaBH<sub>4</sub> reduction [28]. However, the XRD pattern peaks intensity of Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV sample and Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV sample are lower than that of Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> sample, indicating the crystallinity of Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> is reduced after NaBH<sub>4</sub> reduction. The amount of Pd loading was 0.0254 mg cm<sup>-2</sup> within Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF sample (examined by inductively coupled plasma). The XRD pattern does not exhibit any further distinctive peaks following the introduction of Pd, which potentially related to a low Pd loading. Fig. S1 shows that bare NF has a smooth surface. The propensity for Pd to aggregate can readily result in formation of Pd agglomerates on the surface of electrocatalyst [29]. For

Pd@NF, spherical Pd clusters are dispersedly formed on the surface of NF (Fig. S2). The large-sized clusters may reduce the EHDC performance and stability of Pd catalysts due to active site blockage. The surface morphology of Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF is observed in Fig. S3. Large, dense Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> cones directly cover the surface of macroporous nickel foam, considerably increasing the surface area of the electrocatalyst, which is conducive to full contact of the electrode with the electrolyte. The lattice fringes observed in the image, with respective spacing distances of 0.202 and 0.282 nm, may be attributed to the (400) and (220) crystallographic planes of the Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> phase in spinel structure (Fig. S4) [30,31]. The surface morphology (SEM) of Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF is similar to Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF, and no obvious Pd clusters are observed on it after Pd loading, indicating the low loading and good dispersion of Pd (Fig. 1c). The TEM image and the relevant Pd size distribution show the Pd nanoparticles with a mean diameter of about 2.10 nm uniformly dispersed on the Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF support (Fig. 1d). The average size of the Pd structure in Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF is slightly smaller than that in Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/NF. Fig. S5 shows the aggregation of Pd nanoparticles with a mean diameter of about 2.49 nm on the Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/NF support was relatively concentrated, and the dispersion effect is general. The anion vacancies on the surface of the Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF support will lead to more exposure to Pd<sup>2+</sup> adsorption sites, which promotes the dispersion of Pd. The high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) picture indicates a lattice spacing of 0.23 nm, which corresponds well with the



(111) plane of the Pd nanoparticles (Fig. 1e) [32]. The energy dispersive spectrometry (EDS) mapping analysis of Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF demonstrates a homogeneous dispersion of Co, O, and Pd elements (Fig. 1f-i).

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was used to better comprehend the local composition information of prepared samples (Fig. 2 and S6). The XPS spectra of all samples have prominent signals corresponding to Co and O elements. The spectrum of C1s can be neglected because of the adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub> in the air [33]. The XPS spectra of Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/NF and Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF reveal two new minuscule peaks at approximately 337 and 342 eV that are attributed to Pd 3d, which suggests the successful introduction of Pd (Fig. 2a and S6a) [34]. The XPS spectrum of Co 2p exhibits two distinct peaks at 794.70 and 779.60 eV, which may be attributed to Co<sup>3+</sup> 2p<sub>1/2</sub> and Co<sup>3+</sup> 2p<sub>3/2</sub> states, respectively. Additionally, the peaks seen at 796.20 and 781.10 eV can be ascribed to Co<sup>2+</sup> 2p<sub>1/2</sub> and Co<sup>2+</sup> 2p<sub>3/2</sub> states, respectively (Fig. 2b and S6b) [35]. The three shake-up satellites (abbreviated 'Sat') of Co 2p are typical peaks of the Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> material [36]. By comparing the area covered by the fitting contours, it is feasible to determine the Co<sup>2+</sup>/Co<sup>3+</sup> relative atomic ratio on Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/NF and Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF surface. Clearly, the Co<sup>2+</sup>/Co<sup>3+</sup> atomic ratio of Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF (2.84) is greater than that of Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/NF (1.65), indicating that a fraction of Co<sup>3+</sup> ions are reduced to Co<sup>2+</sup> ions on the surface of Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/NF in conjunction with the generation of oxygen vacancies following NaBH<sub>4</sub> reduction [37]. The formation of oxygen vacancies results in a decrease in the binding energies of Co. The confirmation of oxygen vacancies may be further supported by analyzing the O 1s spectra (Fig. 2c). The O 1s XPS spectra were fitted to obtain obvious characteristic peaks located at 529.68, 531.28, 532.68,

and 535.48 eV, corresponding to typical metal-oxygen bond (O<sub>L</sub>), oxygen vacancies (O<sub>V</sub>), hydroxyl or surface-adsorbed oxygen (O<sub>ads</sub>) and adsorbed water (O<sub>w</sub>) (Fig. 2c and S6c) [38–41]. The SMSI between Pd and metal oxides will significantly enhance the adsorption of surface oxygen-containing species (O<sub>ads</sub> and O<sub>w</sub>), which is advantageous for the production of active H\* on the Pd surface to promote EHDC [42]. The area percentage of O<sub>V</sub> covered by the fitting curves can be obtained from the XPS spectra. It is obvious that the O<sub>V</sub> area percentage of the Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF (44.21%) is significantly higher than that of Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/NF (28.78%). The results indicate that the Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/NF material prepared by high-temperature annealing contains a certain amount of oxygen vacancies, which will increase considerably after treatment with NaBH<sub>4</sub>, and oxygen vacancy sites on Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/NF serve as active sites for stabilizing and reducing Pd<sup>2+</sup> to Pd [43,44]. The two peaks located at 342.57 and 337.27 eV are considered to be Pd<sup>0</sup> 3d<sub>3/2</sub> and Pd<sup>0</sup> 3d<sub>5/2</sub>, and the others at 343.81 and 338.55 eV are considered to be Pd<sup>2+</sup> 3d<sub>3/2</sub> and Pd<sup>2+</sup> 3d<sub>5/2</sub>, indicating the coexistence of Pd<sup>0</sup> (major) and Pd<sup>2+</sup> species (Fig. 2d) [45,46]. After Pd loading, the peaks of Co 2p binding energy on Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF show positive shifts, which are greater than those of Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/NF (Fig. 2b and S6b). Moreover, Compared with Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/NF, a larger positive shift of the O<sub>L</sub> binding energy is observed on Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF after Pd anchoring (Fig. 2c and S6c). Electrons transferred from the Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> interlayer to Pd, thus leaving Pd in an electron-rich state. Fig. 2d shows that the peaks of Pd 3d binding energy loaded on the oxygen vacancies-rich Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF support negatively shift relative to Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/NF, which indicates that Pd obtains more electrons from the vacancies-rich Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF support. By

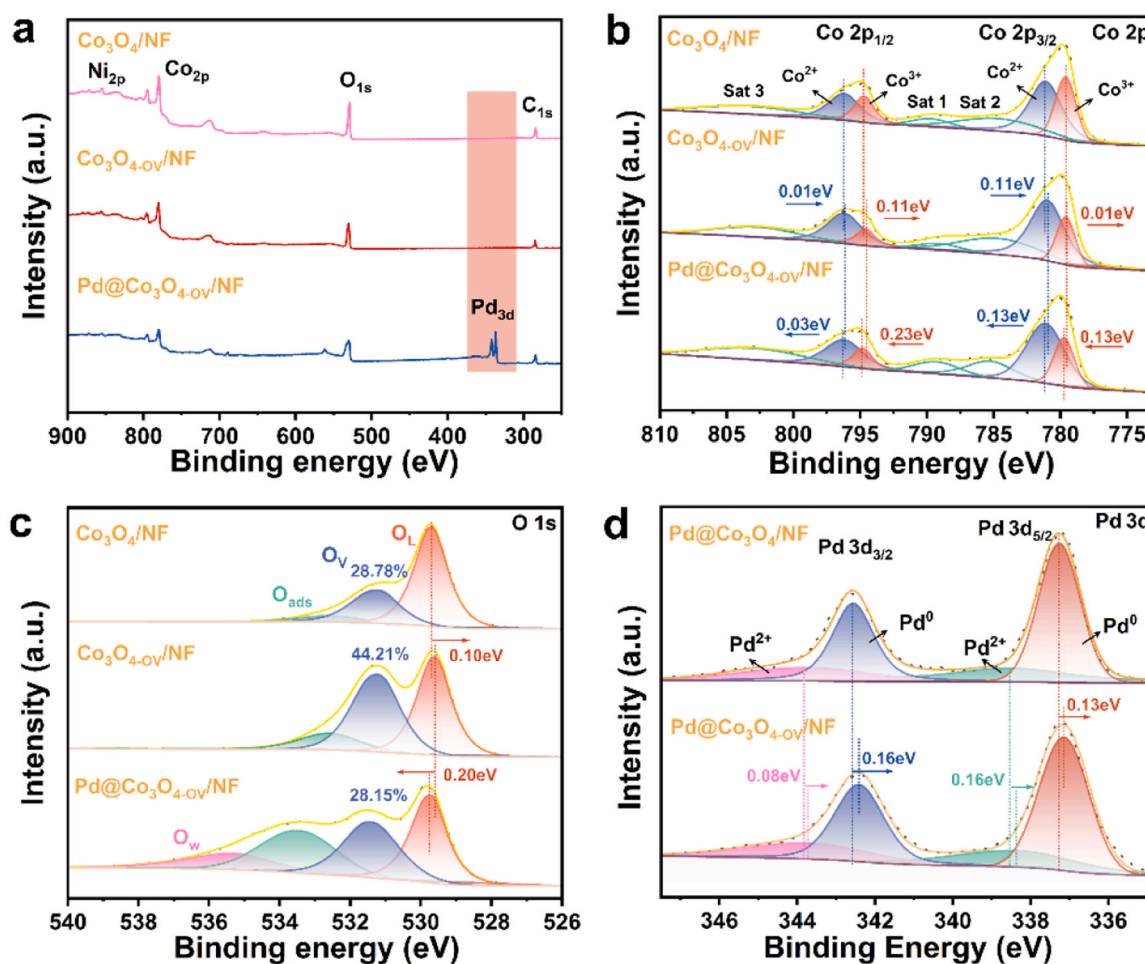


Fig. 2. XPS spectra of (a) the full elements, (b) Co 2p, and (c) O 1s within Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/NF, Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF, and Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF powder samples; (d) XPS spectra of Pd within Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/NF and Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF powder samples.

analyzing the binding energy shift results of Co 2p, O<sub>1s</sub>, and Pd 3d, it is known that all of the above higher shifts of binding energies demonstrate a strong SMSI effect between Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4-0V</sub> support and Pd, which leads to the transfer of electrons from Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4-0V</sub> to Pd. According to prior studies, the EHDC reaction mechanism on Pd can be described as an indirect reduction process with the generated H<sup>\*</sup> serving as an intermediary. It has been discovered that electron-rich Pd can promote the water dissociation process of H<sup>\*</sup> generation in electrocatalysis. The trapped H<sub>2</sub>O absorbs on electron-rich Pd and forms Pd-H<sup>\*</sup> bonds by accepting the transferred electrons, hence promoting the H<sup>\*</sup>-mediated EHDC reaction [47–49]. For electron-rich Pd, the Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4-0V</sub>/NF catalyst was expected to show good catalytic activity for 2,4-DCP.

### 3.2. Electrochemical catalytic performance

Linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) curves of different electrocatalysts in 0.05 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> solution were evaluated (Fig. 3a). The Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/NF catalyst exhibits inferior performance characterised by a larger overpotential (−0.81 V at 10 mA cm<sup>−2</sup>), suggesting its inherent inertness for water splitting. The introduction of oxygen vacancies for the Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/NF enhances its performance and leads to a decrease in overpotential, as observed in the Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4-0V</sub>/NF catalyst with an overpotential of −0.75 V at a current density of 10 mA cm<sup>−2</sup>. After Pd loading, the SMSI effect between Pd and Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4-0V</sub>/NF support further enhances the water activation ability of Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4-0V</sub>/NF (−0.70 V at 10 mA cm<sup>−2</sup>). Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) spectra reveal the promotion of O<sub>v</sub> for water

splitting (Fig. S7). The signal of O-H vibration peak of dissociative water at 3510 cm<sup>−1</sup> of Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4-0V</sub>/NF is the strongest, indicating that Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4-0V</sub>/NF has a strong ability of water splitting [50]. The improved water splitting ability of the Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4-0V</sub>/NF electrocatalyst ensures a higher H<sup>\*</sup> generation rate, which is conducive to the progress of the EHDC reaction. The generation of H<sup>\*</sup> was strongly correlated with the applied potential. The recorded working potential on Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4-0V</sub>/NF and Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/NF electrodes during the dechlorination process of 2,4-DCP can be observed in Fig. 3b. Under the influence of a consistent current of 10 mA cm<sup>−2</sup>, the working potential of both electrodes exhibited two distinct stages. During the initial 10-minute period, there was a rapid decline in the working potentials of both systems, suggesting that the contents of adsorbed atomic H<sup>\*</sup> were unstable. Between 10 and 130 minutes, the working potentials of Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4-0V</sub>/NF and Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/NF exhibited a progressive incline, reaching around −0.71 and −0.70 V, respectively. These values corresponded to a current density of −8.0 and −9.7 mA cm<sup>−2</sup> in Fig. 3a. Therefore, the working potentials on both electrocatalysts at a constant current of 10 mA cm<sup>−2</sup> ensure the existence of sufficient H<sup>\*</sup> to carry out the EHDC of 2,4-DCP, and the EHDC reaction will occur more rapidly on Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4-0V</sub>/NF [51]. The LSV curves of Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4-0V</sub>/NF in 0.05 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> solution (before and after adding 2,4-DCP) show the addition of 2,4-DCP leads to enhanced cathodic current density (Fig. S8), indicating that more H<sup>\*</sup> will be consumed in EHDC [52]. All of the results indicate that the presence of Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4-0V</sub> support would accelerate the Volmer reaction (water dissociation) and promote the generation of H<sup>\*</sup>, resulting

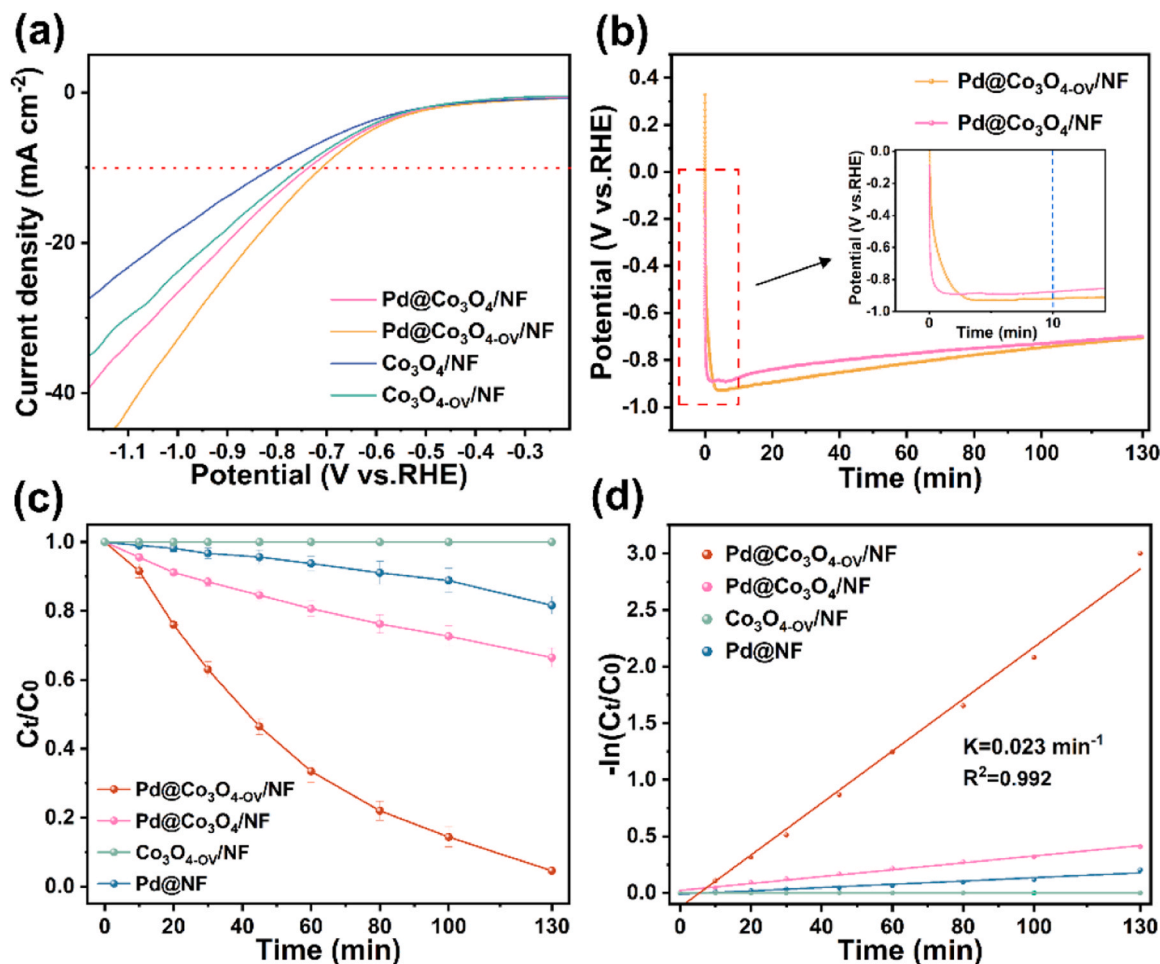


Fig. 3. (a) LSV curves of different electrocatalysts in 0.05 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> solution; (b) The working potential on Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4-0V</sub>/NF and Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/NF electrodes during the electrochemical dechlorination of 2,4-DCP at a constant current of 10 mA cm<sup>−2</sup>; (c) The time-dependent EHDC performances of 2,4-DCP (80 ppm) with different electrocatalysts; (d) The EHDC pseudo-first-order kinetic plots of 2,4-DCP (80 ppm) with different electrocatalysts.

in the enhanced EHDC activity of the Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF.

To evaluate the detox potential, the elimination efficiency of 2,4-DCP by the EHDC process with different electrocatalysts was examined. As shown in Fig. 3c, Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF can not effectively convert 2,4-DCP after electrolysis for 130 min since there is no active site on it. The EHDC of 2,4-DCP is substantially improved by the Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF with a 95.40% elimination efficiency after 130 min EHDC reaction, which is higher than Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/NF (33.52%) and Pd@NF (18.38%). The EHDC kinetic was learned by using the pseudo-first-order kinetics model to intuitively analyze elimination efficacy of different electrocatalysts (Fig. 3d). The result shows that the EHDC kinetic of Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF is indicated to be fastest ( $K = 0.023 \text{ min}^{-1}$ ) in all samples.

The impact of the starting 2,4-DCP concentration on the time-dependent performance during EHDC process using Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF is shown in Fig. 4a. The results indicate that Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF electrocatalyst exhibits favourable EHDC performance for low concentrations of 2,4-DCP. Fig. 4b compares the DA of Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF with that of most reported Pd-modified electrodes for EHDC of 2,4-DCP [16, 44, 52–56]. DA determined the amount (mmol) of 2,4-DCP treated with per unit mass (g) of Pd during per unit time. As shown in Fig. 4b, our catalyst has the highest DA for the EHDC of 2,4-DCP among different catalysts. Meanwhile, Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF has low Pd loading compared with other literatures reported, which indicates that the catalyst has a high Pd atoms utilization. The outcome demonstrates that Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF is competitive and superior to the majority of Pd-modified electrocatalysts reported to date. The time-dependent EHDC performances of different halogenated organic pollutants (80 ppm) were tested by using

Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF electrode (Fig. 4c). Fig. 4d shows the related pseudo-first-order kinetic plots. The extremely strong C-F bond makes 2-Fluorophenol almost unconverted [57]. In contrast, 2-Chlorophenol, 4-Chlorophenol, and 2-Bromophenol are transformed rapidly in EHDC reaction, and the conversion efficiency of 2-Bromophenol is higher than that of 4-Chlorophenol and 2-Chlorophenol. Notably, the conversion efficacy of 4-chlorophenol is greater than that of 2-chlorophenol, which can be related to the difference that the Cl atom in the para-position of the hydroxyl group is more active than the one in the ortho-position [58]. The Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF electrocatalyst has good EHDC efficiency for 2,4-D, 2,4-DCBA, and CAP. The EHDC kinetic of CAP is indicated to be the fastest ( $K = 0.034 \text{ min}^{-1}$ ) in all halogenated organic pollutants (Fig. 4d). In the case of significantly reducing the Pd loading, this Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF electrocatalyst shows high EHDC activity with a dechlorination activity of  $1.79 \text{ mmol}_{2,4\text{-D}} \text{ g}_{\text{Pd}}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$  for EHDC of 2,4-D, which is higher than that of the previous Pd-based EHDC electrocatalyst supported on Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> ( $0.059 \text{ mmol}_{2,4\text{-D}} \text{ g}_{\text{Pd}}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$ ) [59].

### 3.3. Stability and anti-interference ability

The adaptability of the electrode in the complex water environment is also a key indicator to measure the performance of electrocatalyst. The effectiveness of 2,4-DCP removal was evaluated in different pre-determined starting pH solutions. There is a volcanic relationship between EHDC efficiency and initial solution pH (Fig. 5a). The result shows that the Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF electrode has good EHDC efficiency in weakly acidic/alkaline water environment. The relative kinetic of EHDC

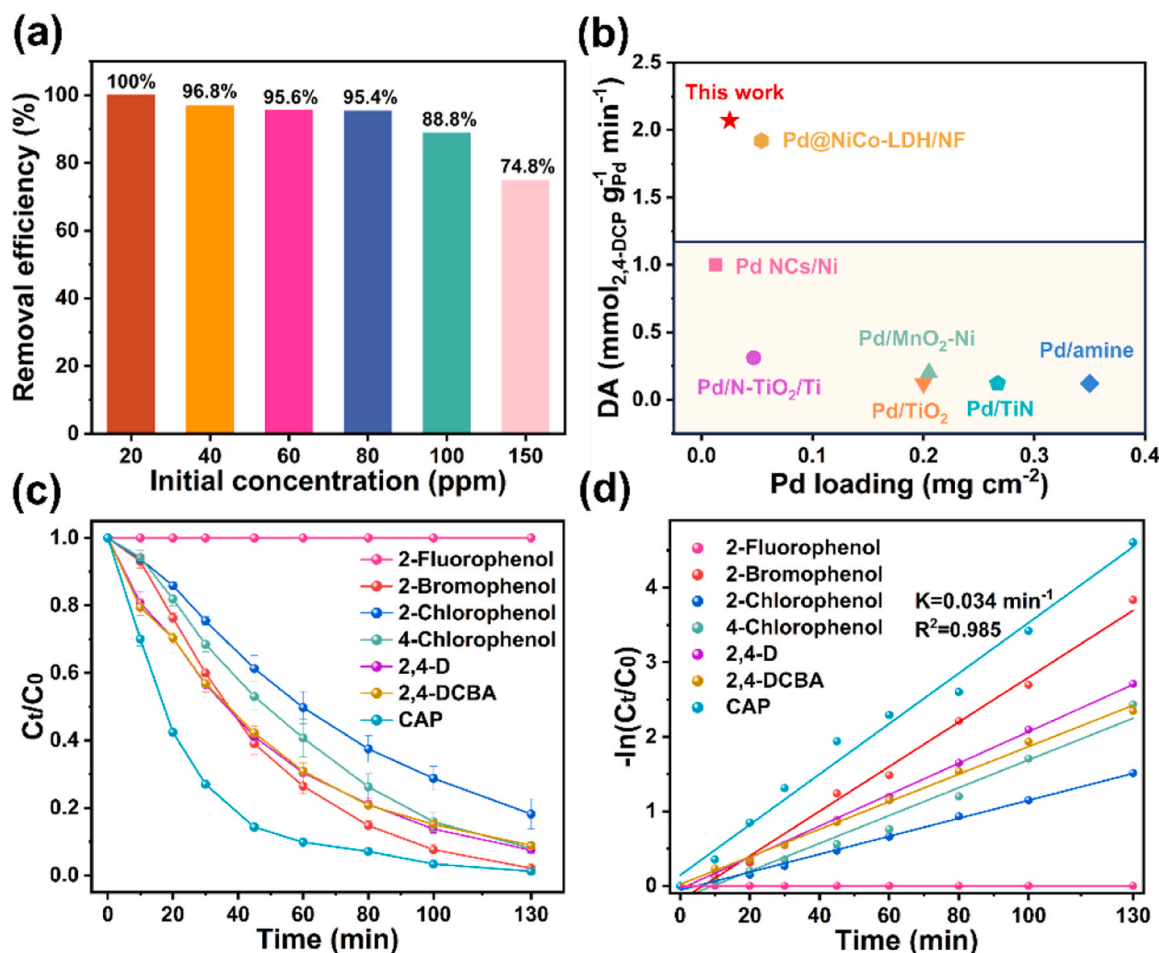


Fig. 4. (a) The effect of varying starting 2,4-DCP concentrations for EHDC on Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF; (b) Comparison of dechlorination activity (DA) between our electrocatalyst and most reported Pd modified electrocatalysts for EHDC of 2,4-DCP; (c-d) The time-dependent EHDC performances and the pseudo-first-order kinetic plots of different halogenated organic pollutants (80 ppm) dechlorination with Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF.



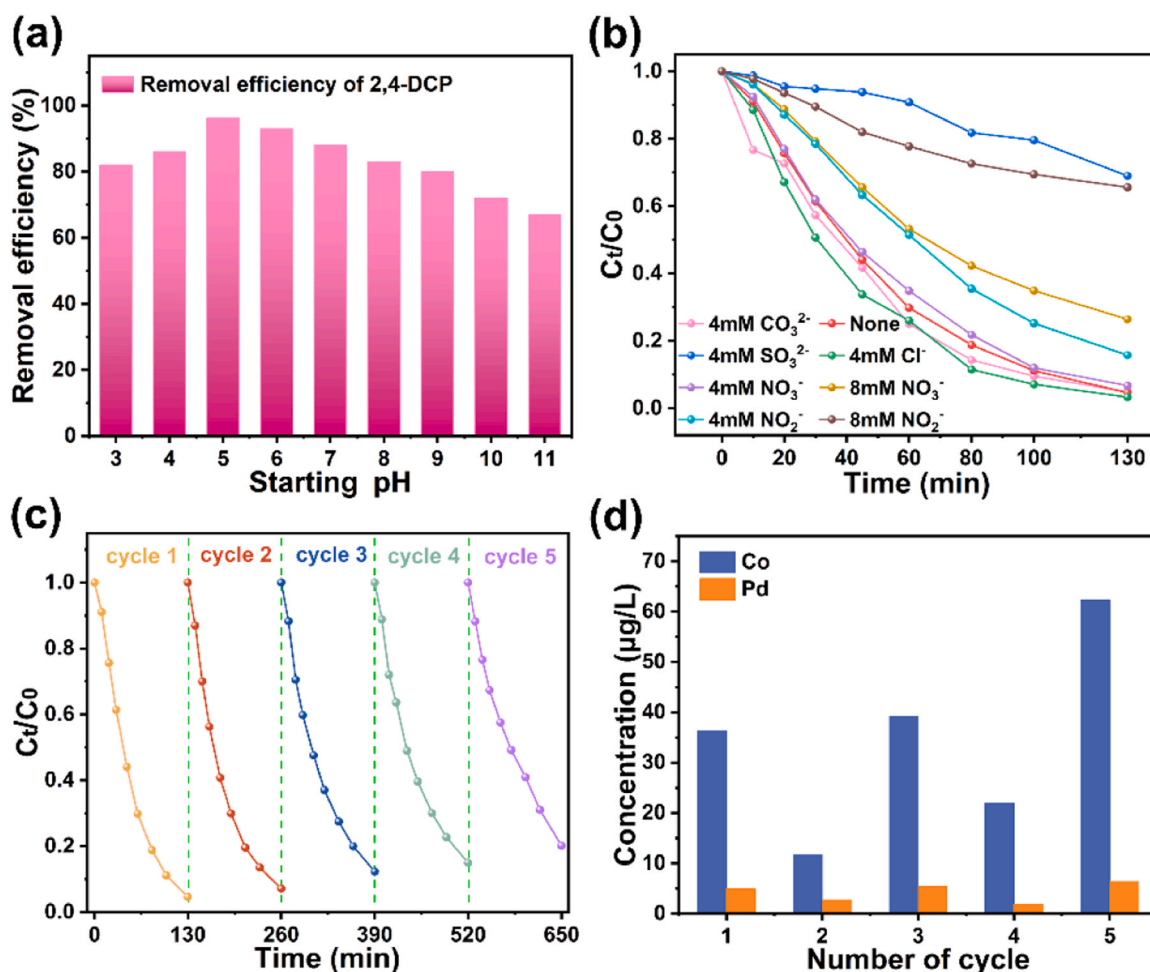


Fig. 5. (a) Elimination efficacy of 2,4-DCP in various specified initial pH solutions; (b) The effect of different dissolved anions on time-dependent EHDC performance of the Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF; (c-d) Elimination efficiency of 2,4-DCP during five successive EHDC runs and leaching concentration of Co and Pd on the Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF.

reaction can be adjusted by controlling the initial pH of solution.

Fig. S9 illustrates that pH of the solution steadily rises during the whole EHDC process in all systems. The change in solution pH during EHDC process is attributable to H<sup>+</sup> consumption. It is important to assess the influence of frequently encountered anions, including chloride (Cl<sup>-</sup>), carbonate (CO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>), nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>), nitrite (NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>), and sulfite (SO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>), present in water, on the efficacy of Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF in the EHDC process. This evaluation is important because these anions may potentially lead to active site poisoning or compete with H<sup>+</sup> species. The result in Fig. 5b clearly shows that except for SO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, other anions (Cl<sup>-</sup> and CO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>) pose almost negligible effects on electrode performances. The impact of SO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> (4 mM) on the elimination efficiency of 2,4-DCP is quite notable, as it achieves only a 31.04% removal rate. This outcome may be ascribed to the detrimental influence of SO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> on the active Pd sites, mostly due to the formation of robust chemical bonds (S-Pd) [60]. The NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (4 mM) has a slight adverse impact, while the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (8 mM), NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> (4 mM), and NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> (8 mM) have greater adverse effects on the removal efficiency of 2,4-DCP. This outcome might potentially be attributed to the cathodic reduction of H<sup>+</sup> species [61].

The stability of the EHDC performance of Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF electrocatalyst was evaluated (Fig. 5c). After undergoing five continuous EHDC process cycles, elimination efficacy of 2,4-DCP exhibited a reduction to 80.01%. The Pd and Co metals leaching of Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF were separately detected during five consecutive EHDC reaction cycles. Infinitesimal Co leaching and Pd leaching avoid generating secondary pollution (Fig. 5d). During the EHDC reaction, the tiny loss of Co and Pd within Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF electrode proves the SMSI positive

effect and the structural stability of the electrocatalyst. The SEM of the Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF remained unchanged after EHDC reaction, indicating that the electrode has good structural stability (Fig. S10).

#### 3.4. Toxicity assessment and reaction mechanism

The concentration evolutions of the reactant and intermediate during EHDC reaction on Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF were quantified. It can be seen that 2,4-DCP, o-CP, and P are found in system under investigation (Fig. 6a). However, no p-CP is discovered during EHDC process. This absence of p-CP may be attributed to the fact that the C-Cl bond in 2,4-DCP is more susceptible to cleavage in the para position compared to the adjacent position due to the steric hindrance effect [62]. The result shows the concentration of 2,4-DCP decreases fast, while that of phenol increases and o-CP remains low. It is noted that the total molar amount of benzene rings varies little throughout the EHDC reaction suggesting few side reactions and the high reaction selectivity for EHDC. A small amount of o-CP (a toxic persistent organic pollutant) still existed in the solution after the EHDC reaction, which may do some harm to the environment. The assessment of biosafety improvements in water was conducted by a comparative analysis of Chlorella cell activity in various solutions. The OD<sub>680</sub> analysis results indicate that the density of Chlorella cells in the EHDC-treated solution is close to that of the control group and much greater than the untreated solution (Fig. 6b). The OD<sub>680</sub> of Chlorella cells remained basically unchanged in the 2,4-DCP-contained solution, indicating that 2,4-DCP has the adverse effect of on Chlorella cells. The three digital images show that solution

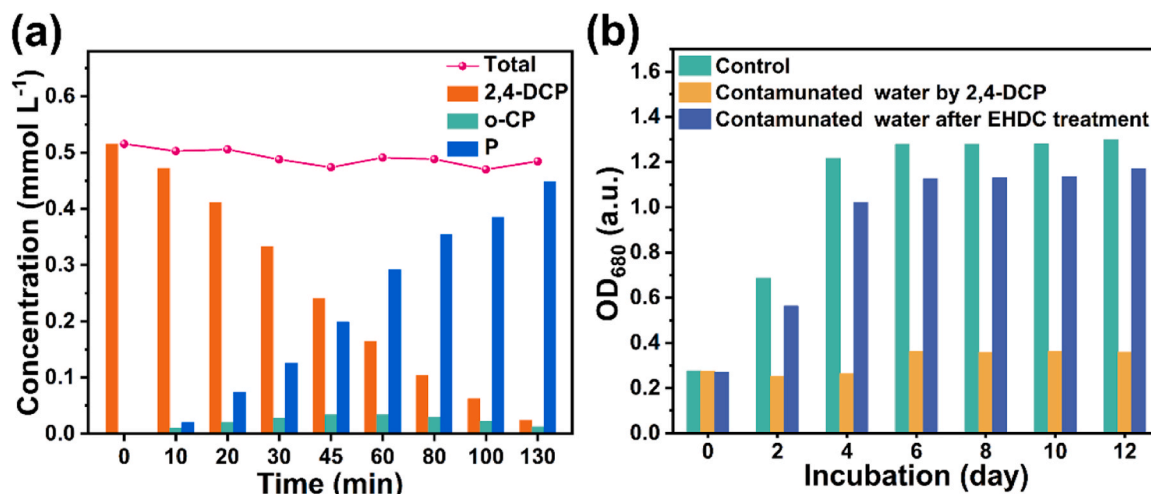


Fig. 6. (a) Concentration variations of the reactant, the reaction intermediate, and the final product throughout the EHDC process; (b) The evolution of OD<sub>680</sub> of Chlorella cell solution during various incubation days.

contaminated 2,4-DCP exhibits yellow-green, which may be attributed to the loss of chlorophyll (Fig. S11) [63]. On the contrary, the solution treated with EHDC remains a similar green color to the control group. Therefore, it can be established that 2,4-DCP has an adverse effect on Chlorella cells, and the biosafety of water treated by EHDC has been improved.

During the EHDC process, indirect reductive dechlorination mediated by H<sup>\*</sup> is the main pathway. To further study the indirect reduction mechanism on Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF, t-BuOH was added as an H<sup>\*</sup> trapping agent. With the increase of t-BuOH concentration, the EHDC efficacy of 2,4-DCP on Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF is significantly inhibited (Fig. 7a). Furthermore, the ESR analysis by using DMPO as the probe reveals nine characteristic peaks of Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/NF and Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF, corresponding to the existence of H<sup>\*</sup> (Fig. 7b), a stronger peak intensity can be demonstrated as a higher concentration of H<sup>\*</sup> [64–66]. The stronger signal of Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF confirms that H<sup>\*</sup> formation has been enhanced. Fig. 7c depicts the promoted EHDC mechanism on Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF electrocatalyst for degradation of 2,4-DCP. The enhanced water splitting ability of Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF will boost H<sup>\*</sup> production. Subsequently, the H<sup>\*</sup> present on the Pd surface initiates the assault on the C–Cl bonds of 2,4-DCP, resulting in the conversion of 2,4-DCP into phenol. Finally, the phenol is desorbed from the catalyst.

#### 4. Conclusions

In summary, oxygen vacancies-rich Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> (Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV) cone-like architecture growth in situ on Ni foam was used as an intermediate layer to

obtain Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF composite electrode with low Pd loading (0.0254 mg cm<sup>-2</sup>). The Pd of the catalyst, which has rich electrons, facilitates formation of H<sup>\*</sup> through Pd–H bond, hence promoting EHDC reaction. The prepared Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF shows high EHDC activity with a dechlorination activity (DA) of 2.07 mmol<sub>2,4-DCP</sub> g<sub>Pd</sub><sup>-1</sup> min<sup>-1</sup> for EHDC of 2,4-DCP, which is higher than most reported Pd-modified electrodes. The Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF exhibited excellent anti-background interference ability (different initial pH and anions in aqueous solution) and good cycle stability (5 consecutive EHDC cycles), which could effectively improve aquatic biosafety in actual application. This study proposes a viable defect-regulating method for building EHDC electrocatalysts with fewer precious metals and quick electrocatalytic hydrodechlorination activity.

#### CRediT authorship contribution statement

**Lipeng Diao:** Data curation. **Maomao Liu:** Data curation. **Yuan-yuan Sun:** Data curation. **Tao Li:** Writing – original draft. **Zhenyu Kong:** Methodology. **Dongjiang Yang:** Writing – review & editing. **Ping Lu:** Data curation. **Daohao Li:** Writing – review & editing.

#### Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

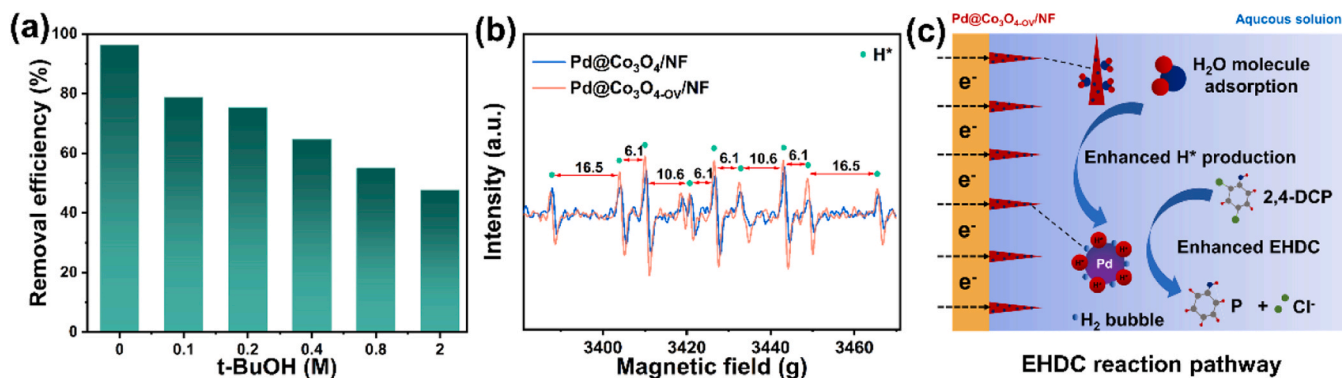


Fig. 7. (a) EHDC performance of 2,4-DCP on Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF under different t-BuOH concentrations; (b) The DMPO spin-trapping ESR spectra of Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/NF and Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF; (c) The EHDC reaction pathway on Pd@Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-OV/NF.



## Data Availability

Data will be made available on request.

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## Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at [doi:10.1016/j.apcatb.2024.123968](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2024.123968).

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